## Convex bodies and radial projection

Recall that a convex set in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ is a set $K$ such that if $x, y \in K$ and $0 \leq t \leq 1$ then $t x+(1-t) y \in$ $K$. Geometrically, this means that if $x$ and $y$ are in $K$ then the closed line segment joining them is also contained in $K$. Visually, this means that the set has no dents or holes.

Definition. A convex body in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ is a compact convex set $K$ with nonempty interior, and it is regular if it is the set of points satisfying an inequality of the form $h(v) \geq 0$ for some continuous real valued function $h$ defined on an open neighborhood of $K$ and the point set theoretic boundary (or frontier) $\partial K$ of $K$ is the set of all points where $h(v)=0$.

DEFAULT HYPOTHESIS. Unless stated otherwise, all convex bodies considered here are assumed to be regular.

Examples. 1. The simplest example is the solid unit disk $D^{n}$ in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, which is defined by the inequality

$$
1-\sum_{i} x_{i}^{2} \geq 0
$$

2. Clearly we want a subspace like the hypercube defined by $-1 \leq x_{i} \leq 1$ to be a convex body. This and many other examples will follow from a few simple observations which we shall now describe.

PROPOSITION. Let $K$ be a compact convex subset of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ with nonempty interior such that $K$ is defined by a finite set of inequalities $h_{j}(v) \geq 0$ where each $h_{j}$ is a smooth real valued function such that $h_{j}(v)=0$ implies $\nabla h_{j}(v) \neq \mathbf{0}$. Then $h$ is a regular convex body.

Proof. Let $h$ be the minimum of the functions $h_{j}$. Then $K$ is the set of points where $h(v) \geq 0$. If $h(v)>0$ then $h_{j}(v)>0$ for all $j$ and in fact there is an open neighborhood $V$ of $v$ in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ such that each $h_{j}$ is positive on $V$. Therefore $v$ is an interior point of $K$. If $h(v)=0$, then $h_{i}(v)=0$ for some $i$. By the Inverse/Implicit Function Theorem, we know that every open neighborhood of $v$ contains points $z$ such that $h_{i}(z)<0$, and therefore $v$ must be a frontier point of $K . \boldsymbol{\square}$

The preceding result holds for the hypercube, and hence the latter is a regular convex body as defined above. More generally, the result applies if each $h_{j}$ is a first degree polynomial in the coordinates. This yields examples like the following:
3. The $n$-simplex $\Sigma_{n} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$ consisting of all points ( $x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}$ ) such that each $x_{i} \geq 0$ and $\sum_{i} x_{i} \leq 1$.
4. The prism in $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ consisting of all points $\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}, x_{n+1}\right)$ such that $\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$ lies in $\Sigma_{n}$ and $0 \leq x_{n+1} \leq 1$.

The following theorem is intuitively what one would expect, but it plays an important role in many contexts:

THEOREM. If $K$ is a regular convex body in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, then there is a homeomorphism from ( $D^{n}, S^{n-1}$ ) to ( $K, \partial K$ ).
Proof. First of all, we claim it suffices to consider regular convex bodies such that $\mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ lies in the interior. If $K$ is a regular convex body which contains the point $p$ and $T$ is the isometry of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ sending $x$ to $x-p$, then $K^{\prime}=T[K]$ is also a regular convex body, but it contains the zero vector
in its interior, and if the conclusion of the theorem holds for $\left(K^{\prime}, \partial K^{\prime}\right)$ then it clearly also holds for (K, $\partial K$ ).

Assuming now that $\mathbf{0}$ lies in the interior of $K$, we know that there is some $\varepsilon>0$ such that the open $\varepsilon$-disk centered at $\mathbf{0}$ lies in the interior of $K$. Let $v \in S^{n-1}$ be given, and consider the intersection of $K$ with the closed ray $L(v)$ consisting of all points of the form $t v$, where $t \geq 0$. Then $K \cap L(v)$ is a closed bounded convex set containing all points $t v$ for $t \leq \varepsilon$, and therefore it follows that $K \cap L(v)$ must be a close interval consisting of all $t v$ where $0 \leq t \leq b(v)$ for some $b(v)>0$.

CLAIM: The point $b(v) v$ is the unique point in $\partial K \cap L(v)$.
To prove the claim, first note that the intersection $\partial K \cap L(v)$ is a closed bounded subset of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, and since it is disjoint from an open neighborhood of $\mathbf{0}$ there will be a least positive number $a(v)$ such that $a(v) v$ lies in that intersection. The assertion in the claim is equivalent to saying that $a(v)=b(v)$; we shall prove that $a(v)<b(v)$ leads to a contradiction. If this condition holds, then choose $a^{\prime}(v)$ such that $0<a^{\prime}(v)<a(v)$, and let $\eta>0$ such that the open $\eta$-disk centered at $a^{\prime}(v)$ is contained in the interior of $K$. Let $E$ denote the disk consisting of all points $w$ such that $w=w_{0}+a(v) v$, where $w_{0}$ is perpendicular to $v$ and $\left|w_{0}\right|<\frac{1}{2} \eta$. By convexity the set $K$ contains all convex combinations of the form $t b(v) v+(1-t) w$, where $w$ is as above and $0 \leq t \leq 1$. If $M$ denotes this set, then $M$ is a cone which contains the point $a(v) v$ in its interior; this can be proved in a variety of ways, and one argument is sketched at the end of this document. Since we assumed that $a(v) v$ was a frontier point of $K$, we have derived a contradiction, and therefore we must have $a(v)=b(v)$, proving the claim.

The next step is to prove that $b(v)$ is a continuous function of $v \in S^{n-1}$. Since $\mathbf{0}$ lies in the interior of $K$, it follows that $b(v) \geq \varepsilon$, where $\varepsilon$ is as above. Furthermore, since $K$ is bounded it follows that $b(v)$ is bounded from above by some constant. Thus we have a well-defined function $b$ from $S^{n-1}$ to some closed interval $[m, M]$ for suitable constants satisfying $M>m>0$.

Under the standard radial homeomorphism from $\mathbb{R}^{n}-\{\mathbf{0}\}$ to $S^{n-1} \times(0, \infty)$, the boundary $\partial K$ corresponds to the graph of $b$. Since $\partial K$ is a closed subset of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, the continuity of $b$ will be an immediate consequence of the following result:
LEMMA. (Closed graph property) Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a map of compact Hausdorff spaces. Then $f$ is continuous if and only if its graph is a closed subset of $X \times Y$.

Proof. Suppose that $X$ and $Y$ are Hausdorff and $f$ is continuous. Let $F: X \times Y \rightarrow Y$ and $G: X \times Y \rightarrow Y$ be the functions $F(x, y)=y$ and $G(x, y)=f(x)$. Then the graph of $f(=$ the set of $(x, y)$ such that $y=f(x))$ is the set of all points where $F=G$. Since this set of points is closed for maps into a Hausdorff space, it follows that the graph is closed in he product.

Now assume both spaces are also compact and that the graph $\Gamma$ of $f$ is a closed subset of the product. Then the map $f$ factors into a composite of $\gamma(f): X \rightarrow X \times Y$ - which is defined by $\gamma(f)(x)=(x, f(x))$ - and the projection $P: X \times Y \rightarrow Y$ onto the second coordinate. Let $\Gamma$ denote the image of $\gamma(f)$, so that $\Gamma$ is a compact subset of the product; it follows that $\gamma(f)$ defines a 1-1 correspondence $\gamma^{\prime}$ from $X$ to $\Gamma$. If $Q: X \times Y \rightarrow X$ is projection onto the first coordinate and $g=Q \mid \Gamma$, then $g$ is continuous and is an inverse to $\gamma^{\prime}$. But since $\Gamma$ and $X$ are compact Hausdorff, the map $g$ must be a homeomorphism, so that its inverse, which is $\gamma^{\prime}$ must be continuous. The latter implies that $\gamma(f)$ is continuous, which in turn implies that $f=P^{\circ} \gamma(f)$ is also continuous.-

EXAMPLE. The preceding result does not extend to noncompact spaces. For example, let $X$ be the nonnegative integers with the usual metric, and let $Y$ be the set of all points on the real line of the form 0 or $1 / n$ for some positive integer $n$. Then the map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ sending 0 to itself and $n>0$ to $1 / n$ is continuous because every map from a discrete space is continuous. Clearly the
map is also $1-1$ and onto, but its inverse is not continuous. But the graph of $f^{-1}$ is the set of all ( $y, x$ ) such that $y=f(x)$ (why?) and hence it is closed in $Y \times X$.

Completion of the proof of the theorem. Define the radial projection mapping $\rho: D^{n} \rightarrow K$ by $\rho(\mathbf{0})=\mathbf{0}$ and for nonzero points of the form $t v$ where $0<t \leq 1$ and $v \neq 0$ define $\rho(t v)=t b(v) v$. It follows immediately that this map is $1-1$ onto and continuous except possibly at $\mathbf{0}$. To see continuity at $\mathbf{0}$, let $M_{0}$ be the maximum value of the function $b$, and let $h>0$. Then $\rho(x) \leq M_{0}|x|$ holds, and therefore we know that $|x|<h / M_{0}$ implies $|\rho(x)|<h$, proving continuity at $\mathbf{0}$. Since $D^{n}$ is compact and $K$ is Hausdorff, it follows that $\rho$ must be a homeomorphism.

## Appendix

We shall prove the following result, which was one step in the proof of the main theorem:
PROPOSITION. Let a be a nonzero vector in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, let $b$ be a vector in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, let $\delta>0$ be a positive real number, and let $E$ be the $(n-1)$-dimensional disk consisting of all points $w=b+w_{0}$, where $w_{0}$ is perpendicular to $a$ and $\left|w_{0}\right| \leq \delta$. Let $H$ be the smallest convex set containing $E$ and $a+b$. Then $H$ contains all points of the form $b+t a$, where $0<t<1$, in its interior.

In the application to the proof of the main theorem, we take $b=a^{\prime}(v) v$ and $a=\left(b(v)-a^{\prime}(v)\right) v$. The point $a(v) v$ then can be rewritten as

$$
a(v) v=a^{\prime}(v) v+\frac{a(v)-a^{\prime}(v)}{b(v)-a^{\prime}(v)}\left(b(v)-a^{\prime}(v)\right) v
$$

and since

$$
0<\frac{a(v)-a^{\prime}(v)}{b(v)-a^{\prime}(v)}<1
$$

this translates to the equation $a(v) v=b+t a$ were $0<t<1$ and hence the point $a(v) v$ lies in the interior, which was the objective.

Proof. The first step is to reduce this to a case where $a$ and $b$ have particularly simple forms. Specifically, if $T_{1}: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is translation by $-a$, then $T_{1}$ transforms the entire picture into one for which $a=0$, and since we have

$$
T_{1}(s u+(1-s) v)=s T_{1}(u)+(1-s) T_{1}(v)
$$

for all $u$ and $b$ (verify this!), it follows that $T_{1}[H]$ is the smallest convex set containing $T_{1}(a+b)=b$ and the disk $T_{1}[E]$; in effect, this reduces everything to proving the result when $b=0$. Similarly, if $T_{2}$ is an orthogonal transformation sending $b$ to a positive multiple of the last unit vector $\mathbf{e}_{n}=(0, \ldots, 1)$, we can reduce everything to the case where $a=k \mathbf{e}_{n}$ for some $k>0$.

If $a$ and $b$ are given as above, then we claim that $H$ is the solid cone consisting of all points $\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$ satisfying the inequalities $x_{n} \geq 0$ and

$$
\frac{x_{n}}{k} \leq 1-\frac{1}{\delta} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} x_{i}^{2}}
$$

If this is true, then the points specified the corresonding strict inequality (with $>$ replacing $\geq$ ), which defines an open subset of the solid cone, and hence these point must lie in the interior of $H$ as claimed.

Consider a typical 2-dimensional section $H^{\prime}$ of $H$ obtained by intersecting it with a the 2dimensional vector subspace $P$ spanned by $\mathbf{e}_{n}$ and some unit vector $\mathbf{u}$ perpendicular to $\mathbf{e}_{n}$; there is a drawing in the file convexbodies2.pdf. Elementary considerations show that $H^{\prime}$ must contain the solid triangle in $P$ with vertices $y \mathbf{e}_{n}$ and $\pm \delta \mathbf{u}$, which is the smallest convex set containing the given three vertices. The union of these plane sections is just the cone described by the preceding inequality, and therefore $H$ must contain this solid cone. Finally, straightforward computation implies that this solid cone is convex, and therefore $H$ must be the solid cone.

